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ABSTRACT

This paper investigates the changing role of women, the decline of the "feminine mystique," the "empty nest" stage of marriage, sex role stereotypic counseling in secondary and postsecondary educational institutions, and other problems resulting from the increasing numbers of women enrolled in colleges and universities in the United States. It describes a review of the literature which indicates that women who are re-entering college frequently need a special set of services, which differ from those of the traditional student. Selected school programs which have responded to women's expressed needs are discussed. To serve the special needs of older women today, and women of the future, a process model for developing a community-based resource center for women is presented. The proposed centers utilize human service agencies and educational resources of communities. The emphasis is on augmenting and coordinating rather than duplicating services for women in communities throughout the nation. (Author)

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The Pennsylvania State University

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Social Science Program

# A Community-Based Resource Center For Women: Process For Developing A Network

A Master's Paper

by

Laura Lea Landman

Submitted in Partial Fulfillment
of the Requirements
for the Degree of

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A Community-Based Resource Center For Women:
Process For Developing A Network

by Laura Lea Landman

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A Community-Based Resource Center For Women:
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The proportion of women in the labor force has doubled since 1920. Many women have rejected the "feminine mystique" while others question their roles only when confronted by the "empty nest". Increasing numbers of older women are enrolling in universities. How can society respond to these changes? High school sex stereotyping career guidance must cease. Sexism in academe must be erased, women in graduate studies should be perceived as serious scholars. Employers, mandated to change, are responding with non-discriminatory personnel practices. Communities can serve women's educational and career counseling needs by developing community-based guidance centers.

Introduction

This paper investigates the changing role of women, the decline of the "feminine mystique", the "empty nest" stage of marriage, sex role stereotypic counseling in secondary and post-secondary educational institutions, and other problems inherent in the increasing numbers of women enrolled in colleges and universities in the United States.

Sexism in higher education requires more than a cursory glance. Academe should be in the forefront of change, but administrators are frequently part of the all-male networks with their undefined biases. When these phenomena are coupled with sex role stereotypic counseling in education, women who choose non-traditional disciplines are not perceived as serious scholars. This type of sexism is also present in the private and public sector of the economy. There is a dearth of women in upper echelon career positions. Although the proportion of women in the labor market has doubled in the last twenty years, equity in income and promotion do not yet exist.

A review of the literature indicates that women who are re-entering college frequently need a special set of services, which differ from those of the traditional student. Many schools have responded to women's expressed needs; selected programs are included below. Services designed initially for middle class older women are being revised to serve another subpopulation of divorced or single parenting women.

Three hypotheses are posited and supported in this paper. They are: (1) there has been a decline in the "feminine mystique", (2) women who are in the "empty nest" stage of marriage frequently look for fulfillment outside the home, and (3) girls who are guided into traditional careers will need career and educational counseling after graduating from high school or college to facilitate their finding jobs in non-traditional fields.

To serve the special needs of older women today, and women of the future, a process model for developing a community-based resource center for women is presented. The proposed centers will utilize human service agencies and educational resources of communities. The emphasis is on augmenting and coordinating rather than duplicating services for women in communities throughout the nation.

## Section I

## THE CHANGING ROLE OF WOMEN

Sociologists, psychologists, feminists, and popular authors, have written extensively over the past decade about the changing roles of women in the United States. Some voices have been strident while others have blended into a chorus whose volume has risen, attracting the attention of business, education and industry. One of the most valid indicators of change is a recent report which documents the increase in women's participation in the labor force. The number of women in the work force nearly doubled between 1950 and 1974; simultaneously, "the ratio of women per 100 men in the labor force has risen from 41 in 1950 to 63 in 1974" (Bureau of Census, 1976, p. 26). The increases have occurred at all age levels, i.e., the nearly 37 million women who comprised forty percent of the work force in 1975 represented a cross section of all women in the United States.

The profile of the average women worker in 1975 differed from the one which prevailed in 1920. A twenty-eight year old unmarried factory worker or clerk no longer describes the thirty-five year old woman who is found in varied occupations (Women's Bureau, 1976, p. 1). The marital status of women and the presence of pre-school and school age children appear to have less influence on a woman's working than they did in 1950. The participation of women

in the labor force who had children under six years of age increased from 12 percent in 1950 to 37 percent in 1975. Similar changes occurred for those women whose children were of school age; particpation rates rose from 28 percent in 1950 to 52 percent in 1975 (Bureau of Census 1975, p. 26).

The occupational distribution of women differs from men's. Women are found more often in white collar jobs than men but the positions require fewer skills and demand less pay. Women comprise two-fifths of all professional and technical workers, but they are usually non-college teachers (72%) and health workers (64%) (Women's Bureau, 1976, p. 7).

Although forty-six percent of all women sixteen years of age and older were in the labor force in 1975, they did not receive incomes which were equal to men in comparable jobs (Women's Bureau, 1976; Bureau of Census, 1976). The 1974 median income of women who worked at year round full-time jobs represented only fifty-seven percent of the median income of their male counterparts.

> Part of this differential between women and men is attributable to differences in such factors as educational attainment, occupational distribution, industry of employment, and work experience. In both 1970 and 1974, however, the median income of women college graduates aged 25 and over who worked year round full time was only about 60 percent of the comparable male median income. In fact, women college graduates had incomes that were, on the average, lower than men with only a high school education (Bureau of Census, 1976, p. 45).

Educational attainment has been identified as one variable which influences job qualifications for men and women.

However, data indicate income variations still exist between men and women who have attained comparable levels of education. In March, 1974, seventy-one percent of working women between twenty-five and sixty-four years of age who had completed a minimum of four years of college were employed as professional and technical workers; this figure represents a higher proportion for female than male college graduates. However, a closer look at the data indicated fourteen percent of these women were in clerical positions with only seven percent in managerial jobs; twenty-five percent of the males holding similar degrees were working in administrative or managerial positions (Bureau of Census, 1976, p. 34). These data make it quite apparent that although women are represented by greater numbers in the labor force, equity in remuneration and rank within the market place has not yet been achieved. A continuing trend which could influence women's place in the labor market is the increase in the length of their "worklife expectancy", a term "based upon tabulations of the number of persons who are engaged in various types of market employment or who are unemployed" (Fullerton and Byrne, 1976, p. 34). The increase in life expectancy for women which has occurred since 1900 (from 50.7 years to 74.8 years) has extended a woman's working life by more than sixteen years.

## Section II

## WOMEN RETURNING TO HIGHER EDUCATION: A NATIONAL PERSPECTIVE

Women's labor market participation rates increase for each successive level of education. Those women with college credit are more frequently in the work force than women with only a high school diploma. The increased participation of women since 1964 was most notable for those whose education exceeded the bachelor's level. "Labor force particpation of females with 5 or more years of college increased fom 64.6 percent in 1964 to 79.1 percent in 1975 . . ." (National Center For Educational Statistics, 1976, p. 112). Although "educational equity" with men has not been achieved, change has occurred. Among young adults, twenty-five to twenty-nine years of age, sixty-six women compared with one hundred men had completed four years of college in 1950. The corresponding ratio in 1975 was seventy-seven female college graduates for every one hundred males.

> While the proportion completing 4 or more years of college has risen more rapidly for young women than for young men, a higher proportion of men than women in both 1950 and 1975 had completed this much schooling. (Bureau of Census, 1976, p. 21).

The proportion of women who enroll in majors outside traditional female fields continues to be limited. Female students in 1974 were heavily represented in traditional fields such as education (73 percent) English or journalism (57 percent), and health or medical professions (64 percent). The traditional male field, engineering, had an

increase in women's participation (2% in 1966; 7% in 1974). Indicators of educational achievement, such as degrees awarded in major fields, did not show women achieving levels which were comparable to men's. However, unlike income disparities, the educational gap appears to have narrowed in the last quarter century (Bureau of Census, 1976, p. 21).

The size of the traditional school age population is shrinking, concurrently there is an increase in the number of older adults enrolling in educational programs. Enrollment may occur at an older age or the student may choose to extend course work over a longer period of time.

> This phenomenon is related to that aspect of recurrent education called adult education, which is defined as organized instruction (including correspondence courses and private tutoring), usually conducted at a set time and place, with a predetermined end result: a certificate, diploma, or degree. Adult education is rarely a full-time pursuit . . . (National Center For Educational Statistics, 1976, p. 100).

Adults are pursuing additional schooling for reasons which vary from acquiring general information to filling leisure hours. In 1972 adult students listed job improvement or career advancement to be the most important reason for enrolling in college (42.7 percent); fifty-four percent of the male respondents listed career advancement; while female respondents listed family or personal interest before job improvements. Educational and income variables also affect participation rates; i.e., men and women are more likely to particpate in adult education courses if they previously have attained higher levels of education and income (National Center For Educational Statistics, 1976).

The most recent data published on adult college enrollment showed an increasing number of people return to college after they have reached their thirty-fifth birthday. Reasons given for returning to school indicate the older worker often feels challenged by younger more highly educated new labor market entrants. Courses are taken by some adult learners to supplement and update previously earned credentials. Housewives planning to re-enter the labor market comprise a growing student population: many are resuming programs which were interrupted by marriage, supporting student husbands, child rearing or other domestic constraints. In 1974 there were one and a half million persons thirty-five years of age or older enrolled in high school, college or vocational schools, representing two percent of the population of the nation in this age group.

> Two-thirds of the 1.5 million students age 35 and over in the United States were enrolled in college (including 285,000 in graduate school) and about 400,000 were attending trade or vocational school. The remainder (80,000) were enrolled in high school (Young, 1975, p. 47).

The women students included in the above data were not attending classes as an alternative to bridge and garden clubs. They were most often employed with their career advancement contingent on college enrollment. More women than men were enrolled in undergraduate courses; however the reverse was true for graduate studies. The author suggested most of the women over thirty-five who were represented in

these data were motivated to return to school by "strong career ambitions" (Young, 1975).

Evidence of changes in women's roles are quantifiable when one focuses on their labor market participation rates and enrollment levels in adult education courses. Data of this kind are readily available. But what are some of the more subtle or less easily detected factors which contribute to these measureable changes. Three hypotheses are offered in the forthcoming pages. The first suggests there has been a decline in what Friedan (1963) labeled as the "feminine mystique". The second hypothesis is that women who are in the "empty nest" stage of their marriages frequently look for fulfillment outside the home. The third hypothesis offered is that girls who are guided into traditional careers will need career and educational counseling after graduating from high school or college to facilitate their finding jobs in non-traditional fields.

## Section III a

## A DECLINE OF THE FEMININE MYSTIQUE

> The problem lay buried, unspoken, for many years in the minds of American women. It was a strange stirring, a sense of dissatisfaction, a yearning that women suffered in the middle of the twentieth century in the United States. Each suburban wife struggled with it alone. As she made the beds, shopped for groceries, matched slipcover material, ate peanut butter sandwiches with her children, chauffeured Cub Scouts and Brownies, lay beside her husband at night - she was afraid to ask even of herself the silent question - "Is this all?" (Friedan, 1963 p. 11).

Friedan (1963) labeled women's feelings in the early 1960's as "the problem that has no name". Many women experiencing this problem were motivated to seek something beyond the role of wife and mother. The paths followed by these emerging women have led to consciousness-raising groups, the job market, the volunteer community, and the college campus. Subsequently, the "feminine mystique" was discarded along with other inappropriate descriptors. A review of recent research indicates that many women are still trying to resolve "the problem that has no name". (Ferree, 1976; Huber, 1973; Horner, 1972; Manis, 1972; Weismann, 1973; & Westervelt, 1973)

A recent study of 135 women, who had their youngest child in school and lived in a working class community, suggested there are more captive housewives than happy homemakers. More than fifty percent of the women interviewed worked outside the home. Paid jobs, whether full or part time, were perceived as expanding the women's roles and housewives reported being dissatisfied with their roles more often than employed wives (26% vs. 14%). The role of housewife appears to be increasingly more difficult to enjoy (Ferree, 1976; Huber, 1973).

Frequently, a sense of isolation exists among women who have been in the home with small children for a number of years. Friendships which accompany employment, schooling, political participation or other extra-familial interactions have been terminated by the married woman (Manis, 1972). An

older woman who is dissatisfied with her ascribed role frequently experiences quilt. Believing her peers to be well adjusted and happy often increases the woman's level of discomfort (Westervelt, 1973).

Even those women who are capable and most want to achieve experience the effects of "fear of success", characterized by a conflict between the feminine image and self-expression (Horner, 1972). Additionally, women can experience depression when they are educated, married, have small children, and are unable to pursue independent careers due to their husbands' job mobility. Boredom, marital friction, and impaired performance, are variables which influence this state of depression (Weismann et al, 1973).

Ginsburg and Yohalem (1966) delineated six factors which have influenced women's relationship to the labor market. These six factors are: (1) an increase in the number of jobs suitable for female employees; (2) a higher level of education among women; (3) the influence of two world wars which assimilated women into the labor market; (4) the availability and knowledge of birth control devices; (5) the technological advances which produced labor saving devices in homes; (6) a change in the male perception of working wives. Two studies have examined the vital part a husband plays when a woman seeks a new career. Bailyn (1972) determined that many research attempts to study conflict resolution in career women overlooked the husbands' priorities as they were related to their work and family

roles. This study, based on two hundred British women university graduates and their spouses found that identifying the priority which the husband assigns to his family or career is more relevant for the career-wife than the present emphasis placed on his integrating a family and career demands. Poloma's (1970) research on role conflicts and married professional women used a sample comprising fifty-three married couples in which the wife was either a lawyer, medical doctor, or a college teacher. The role conflicts found to be most difficult were the disharmony resulting from the husband's ascribed status of provider and the wife's achieved status of professional.

Not all of the women emerging from the "feminine mystique" who seek change are prepared to return immediately to the labor market; some women choose to enhance their position by entering or re-entering college. Middle-aged women making this choice fear that (1) they lack study skills; (2) their husbands will disapprove; (3) their educational background is outdated; or that (4) too much time will be spent away from the family (Manis & Mochizuki, 1972; Osborn, 1975; & Taines, 1973). "The mature student, with less time to squander, often has the self-knowledge required to order and plan a future, albeit one already foreshortened by delay, in a way that most young adults fresh from high school do not" (Howard, 1975 p. 47.). There have been changes in the older women students in re-entry programs. No longer is the population exclusively middle income women from the suburbs

who seek cultural or intellectual enrichment during their leisure hours. Middle class women still represent a significant proportion of the older students, but they have been joined by low income and minority women, many of whom are mothers of young children and heads of households (Gray, 1975; Howard, 1975). The rate of participation in adult education programs increases in the higher family income levels. "In 1972, participation was 5.5 percent among those with family incomes of less than $4,000 and 20.3 percent for those with incomes of $25,000 and over" (National Center For Educational Statistics 1976 p. 100). Results of recent studies conducted at selected colleges and universities which have specific re-entry programs for mature women students, support the data presented above (Markus, 1975; Osborn, 1975; Schletzer et al 1967; Seay, 1973).

A 1973 study of 150 women selected randomly from 4000 women clients (1964-1972) of the University of Michigan's Center for the Continuing Education of Women produced the following profile of its students. The women were between the ages of thirty and fifty (76%), most of the women were married (80%), many had some previous college credit (71%) and a majority (57%) had husbands who earned $15,000 or more annually. The author suggests "a return to school appeared to be a by-product of relative affluence. The economically and educationally disadvantaged are not included" (Markus, 1973, p. 9). The program at Oakland

University's Continuum Center for Women was designed initially for housewives. Since 1972, needs of groups such as newly divorced women have initiated changes and an expansion in counseling services. The profile of their early clients (1965-1968) resembles the one which emerged from the University of Michigan study: Most of the women were between 30 and 50 years old, married, had some college credit, and were from the more affluent segment of the surrounding communities (Seay, 1973).

The literature reviewed supports the hypothesis that there has been a decline of the "feminine mystique". Friedan's "problem that has no name" can be defined as a lack of self-fulfillment. A positive step taken by increasing numbers of women often includes returning to higher education. Some women have acted while their children were at home, while others have not confronted the problem until the youngest child is launched. This period for the married couple is labeled as the "empty nest". It occurs when none of the children live with the parents. How does the "empty nest" affect the married couple or more specifically, the woman?

## Section III b

## WOMEN'S ROLES: THE EMPTY NEST

A review of the literature on the "empty nest" yielded no universal trends nor conclusions on satisfaction among married couples during that period. There is research

support for the hypothesis that women's lives can lose meaning when the nest is empty. When women attempt to ameliorate this perception by re-entering careers, previously earned college degrees or unused skills frequently need to be updated. Problems which confront newly divorced women can be similar to those of "empty nest" women, whose identity was linked primarily to their role of wife and mother. The former's problems, however, are magnified by impending financial crisis.

A woman who lives vicariously through her children tends to experience a great loss when they are mature. Conversely, if the woman's sense of self-worth is derived from her own accomplishments, she is not as likely to experience feelings of depression when the nest is empty (Bart, 1971). The postparental period of the marital relationship has been defined as "that interval in the family life cycle when the children are no longer a regular physical member of the parent's home, but parents have not entered that poorly defined period of old age" (Alexson, 1960, p. 66). Troll (1971) described the postparental period as lasting thirty or forty years if the last child leaves home when the parents are in their forties. Women who are in the "empty nest" stage must adjust their lives to the anticipated loss of many of their role demands (Lurie, 1974).

The type of family life cycle preferred by the majority of American women is consonant with the one which existed at

the turn of the century. This cycle consists of marriage, childbearing and joint socialization of children. There have been changes in female roles, particularly with the increasing numbers of women working outside the home, but no new or alternative role has been accepted widely which replaces that of wife and mother (Uhlenberg, 1974).

The "empty nest" stage can place unique pressure on the woman if it includes a decision to dissolve the marriage. She is faced with the reality of financial need and the social pressure to remarry. An older divorced woman is also confronted with social norms which sanction her for marrying a man who is more than a few years younger (Bell, 1970). Married or divorced women emerging from the "empty nest" and women rejecting the "feminine mystique" comprise a potential client population for career, guidance, and personal counselors.

## Section III c

## SEX ROLE STEREOTYPING: A PROBLEM IN EDUCATIONAL AND VOCATIONAL COUNSELING

Career and guidance counseling in high schools and colleges following the usual sex role stereotyping can only inhibit a woman's chances for obtaining a job which matches her training and ability. The third hypothesis of this writing suggests girls who are guided into traditional careers will need counseling after graduating from high school or college to increase their chances for employment in non-traditional fields. The Women's Bureau recently

ascertained that "legislation prohibiting sex discrimination in employment will continue to open up new opportunities for women to train for and enter into more diversified jobs and to advance to jobs of higher skill level" (1976, p. 10). Selected perspectives on current practices in vocational and career guidance for girls are given below. The findings indicated that counselors are not helping girls choose careers which will allow them the greatest potential for employment or career advancement.

Patterson (1973) has succinctly summarized six reasons why vocational guidance for women seemed to fail: (1) girls are counseled in junior and senior high after feminine role behavior has been learned, (2) counselors are unaware of the changing role of women, (3) sex roles and vocational development theories are viewed to be mutually exclusive rather than interrelated, (4) counselors center on clients' attributes rather than environmental factors and "life stage of the client", (5) a realistic appraisal of discrimination in employment is rarely offered, and (6) counseling sessions are too short to be effective. Although the author did not note biases which influence counselors' advice to female students, they have been delineated by other authors.

Counselors must apprise themselves of the current literature, lifestyles, and goals of feminists if they are to become aware of their own biases and attitudes concerning women. Counseling must include an overview of women in society. Colleges must design relevant programs for women

who will enter the competitive, male dominated, society. The goal of such programs is not to make all women feminists but to give guidance for realistic approachs to careers. College and high school counselors should no longer view women's careers as temporary. The home/career choice of women need not be mutually exclusive (Farmer, 1971; Hipple, 1975; & Pyke & Ricks, 1973).

If counselors follow the advice which has appeared in professional journals, will they be able to change contemporary society? An experiment by Thomas and Stewart (1971) was designed to discover whether secondary school counselors reacted more positively toward female clients choosing traditional female vocations than to those selecting traditional male vocations. Counselors' responses to various choices made by female clients in audiotaped sessions indicated that counselors, irrespective of sex, scored female clients who selected non-traditional careers as needing more counseling than those clients who selected traditional careers. The authors questioned whether secondary school counselors can operate as change agents in a system of which they are a product; they may be trained or enlightened in the new roles of women but constrained in the counseling setting by social norms. A more optimistic position has been taken by Hansen regarding career counseling for men and women. "It is my firm conviction that we both can have greater control over our lives and development if males and females, counselors and teachers all accept

some responsibility for doing something about women's untapped resources, talents and potential" (Hansen, 1974, p. 40).

Career aspirations prior to and during college enrollment have been studied by a number of authors (Angrist, 1972; Astin & Myint, 1971; Gump, 1972; Harmon, 1970, 1971; Hoffman & Hoeflin, 1972; Veres, 1974 & Wasserman, 1973). Angrist's (1972) longitudinal study of college women revealed that it is during the freshman year when women are most affected by their new environment; this is the time for intervention regarding curriculum choice and career plans. All career counseling must include contingency planning. Angrist contended many of the problems which accompany the "empty nest" can be avoided if this planning is part of early career counseling. Wasserman's (1973) position was that dual career women on college campuses should serve as role models for younger female students. Mothers of female students can assume a similar status if they have had a dual career with a consequent loss of real role and sex-typed home responsibilities (Veres, 1974). Gump's (1972) study investigated sex role concepts. The results suggested an inverse relationship exists between ego-strength and the adoption of the female sex role, that is, the more "self-directed" a woman is, the less chance there is that she will fit traditional roles.

Astin and Myint (1971) followed the career choice of 5,387 women in a longitudinal study conducted from 1960

until 1965. The purpose of the research was to delineate predictor variables for career choice five years after the subjects had completed high school. The results indicated that "brighter" women tended to "maintain" or "raise" career asprations; women with fewer academic capabilities followed less rigorous vocational paths. The findings germane to counselors were that students tend to make career choices which are homogeneous among their sex and peer groups. Counselors must recognize this behavior as stress reducing in the present and one which will allow sex-stereotypic career choices to continue.

Women who become committed to careers seem to make this choice while they are enrolled in college. A 1969 study of women from the University of Minnesota determined that while the career plans of female undergraduates did not differ measureably at age eighteen, women who later labeled themselves as "committed" stayed in college longer, were not brighter than "non-committed" respondents, earned higher degrees, and worked longer. The importance of this study for counselors is that young women may be making career choices in college because they do not perceive choice existing at an earlier time (Harmon, 1970). In a later study, (Harmon, 1971), freshman women were requested to report in retrospect on career considerations. Results showed that after housewife, respondents choices were in the field of education, and social science, few choices occurred in areas which required special talents, extended periods of

training, or short term non-academic training courses. An implication for counselors committed to change is that they must direct and encourage young female clients to choose careers in non-tradiional fields. "The purpose [of the study] was to provide information for counselors and clues for those who are seeking a theory of vocational development in women" (Harmon, 1971, p. 46).

One of the results of a Kansas State University study designed to determine the present and future plans of freshman and sophomore women indicated that marriage and career plans were not seen to be mutually exclusive. Interests also shifted when respondents were questioned on their immediate, post college and future plans. Hoffman and Hoeflin (1972) suggested that colleges which are interested in preparing women for contemporary society must be aware of these shifts in interest.

A number of the studies cited included implications for career counseling of women. Other writers have been more direct in their appeal for changes in counseling and testing. Hansen's (1972) supposition was that much can be accomplished by the schools at a very early period if males and females are socialized for other than traditional life/work roles. Because a major part of socializaton takes place in elementary and secondary schools, Hansen suggested women's studies programs be available to students long before they reach college campuses. Berry (1972) urged counselors to be instrumental in curriculum changes by introducing materials

which depict new life options for women and a wider range of opportunities for girls. Cole (1973) questioned the appropriateness of vocational interest tests which are used for women. In her study, Cole found many tests (e.g. Holland's V.P.I. Scales, Kuder Occupational Scales) currently in use tend to place false limits on career goals for women. A recent review of interest inventories indicated sex-role stereotyping to be pervasive. The study suggested that changing the content and format of inventories such as the Strong Vocational Interest Blank for Women (SVIB-W) will not eradicate stereotyping. "Counselors and all forms of counseling materials must convey a positive commitment to unbiased career decision making. Toward this end, an analysis of cost versus benefit in the use of interest inventories seems a necessary as well as responsible project" (Birk, 1974, p. 284).

Writing from a sociological perspective, (Psathas, 1968) posited that theories of occupational choice for women must include factors such as marriage, mobility, family financial status, social class of family of origin, and educational levels of parents. "Instead of talking about "choice," we turned to an explication of "settings," which in our view engender predictable orientations to the occupational world" (Psathas, 1968, p. 265). The "setting" is the variable which has been neglected in formulating theories of occupational choice. In sum, if counselors do not attain increasing levels of awareness on the changing roles of

women, their counselees will continue to require guidance from counselors and advisors who are outside the control of educational institutions.

## Section III d

## SEXISM IN HIGHER EDUCATION

The proportion of female college students has increased from 30 percent in 1960 to 42 percent in 1970; of all bachelor's degrees awarded in 1949-50, 25 percent went to women as compared to 41 percent in 1972 (U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of Census, p. 21). Although these data indicate change, a literature review suggests that the statistical analysis may be spurious.

Roby (1972), writing from an historical perspective, ascertained that there has not been a significant increase in the equality of educational resources for American women in the last one hundred years. The admission rates of women to degree programs is contingent on the prevailing economic climate. Women who are admitted to higher education encounter a male dominated academic milieu which reflects contemporary society's "exploitive", "striving", and "entrepreneurial culture". The author's position is that women's own pressure to change educational institutions has been ignored unless it coincides with higher education's needs or economic demands. Tobias (1972) offered three basic changes which colleges must implement if women are to experience educational equity: (1) colleges must strive to erase early

cultural conditioning experienced by its female students; (2) faculty and administrators should attempt to be role models; and (3) universities must actively oppose discrimination and sexism which pervade contemporary society.

The sexism which pervades academe has been documented in a number of recent studies (Etaugh, 1973; Holmstrom, E. & Holmstrom, R.W., 1974; Oltman 1970; Sells, 1975; Simon, Clark & Galway, 1967; & Tidball, 1973). Holstrom & Holmstrom's (1974) study used data from an American Council on Education's Carnegie Higher Education Survey, (N=33,119 graduate students from 153 colleges) which showed a tendency for a pattern to develop which adversely affects women doctoral students. Areas which the study addressed were emotional strains which inhibit the completion of graduate work, contemplation of withdrawal from graduate school, faculty attitudes toward women, and availability of faculty for student advising. The authors suggested possible solutions for these conditions, one of which was to have more female professors in the upper ranks at universities. More importantly, they suggested women must be perceived as serious students who are worth training.

It was Sells' (1975) hypothesis that "critical filtering points" frequently limit women's and minority groups' access to professional studies and careers. Sells' pilot study at Berkeley conducted in the spring, 1973, showed that if women did avoid earlier filters and entered graduate programs, then they were often excluded from informal

relationships which existed between students and faculty. Etaugh (1973) assumed that one factor which influenced women's decisions to complete advanced degrees was the negative sanctions they experienced from others in their respective fields. Her thesis is based on an experiment in which 215 faculty members representing various disciplines reported their attitude toward married professional women. Respondents who expressed more negative attitudes were described as older males in politically conservative fields (e.g., business and engineering) who held less advanced degrees. A recent study (Simon, 1967) of women who received their doctorates between the years of 1958 and 1963 revealed that female Ph.D's did have "formal equality" but were denied entrance and/or acceptance into the more informal networks.

A comprehensive study (Blitz, 1974) of women in the professions from 1870-1970 indicated that the peak year for proportional representation of women was 1930. A decline occurred until recently when a slight increase appeared in the decade preceding 1970. This quantitative study analyzed participation rates from two perspectives: (1) changes in the sex ratio in specific professions, and (2) changes in relative importance given to various professions by social norms. "While women are regaining their proportions of degrees at all levels of college and university education, this is taking place more slowly on the higher levels compared with the lower" (Blitz, 1974, pp. 37, 38). The author noted the quantitative nature of his study but

allowed that the increased proportion of women in the professions during the 1920's and 1930's may have been due to the women's rights movement or a population of "enlightened" males. The period Blitz chose to contrast with the 1920's was the post World War II era when women were advised by society to return to their homes, hearths, and gadgets. "The period from the end of World War II to 1950 does not appear to be one of drastic change in female professional employment or in the sex composition of students going to colleges and universities" (Blitz 1974, p. 38).

Results from a questionnaire sent to 454 universities which hold corporate membership in the American Association of University Women indicated the following:

> [W]omen do not have equal status with men in academia e.g., 98 percent of the schools state that their promotional policies are the same for men and women faculty, yet in 34 schools (all co-educational) there are no women department heads and the mean number of women department heads in all schools is less than three per institution (Oltman, 1970, p. 14).

Tidball's (1973) study of 500 women whose names were randomly selected from Who's Who of American Women underscored the importance of increasing the presence of women in college faculties. The results showed that as the ratio of women faculty increased, so did the "output of career successful women graduates" (Tidball, 1973, p. 13).

The American Association of University Women could be an advocate for women in higher education (Oltman, 1972).

The AAUW submitted a report in the fall of 1972 to all four-year accredited institutions; positive objectives for the benefit of students and faculty were included as well as evaluation criteria. The author questioned why higher education is not in the forefront of women's rights rather than an institution which is required by affirmative action mandates to change its sexist practices.

> By 1980, will 38% of our lawyers, doctors, engineers, educators, mathemeticians, psychologists, and other professional persons be women? Or is that a dream that will never be fulfilled because our educators are not committed to equality and have failed to see their social responsibility (Oltman, 1972; p. 75).

In sum, an increasing proportion of the college student population is comprised of women. The research included above indicates that although equal access has been mandated, university norms and mores have not changed sufficiently for female scholars to enjoy the perquisites inherent in informal male networks. Recommendations for change were: (1) female faculty should serve as role models, (2) equity must operate in promotion policies, (3) faculty should perceive women as serious students, and (4) collegial support for women in non-traditional disciplines is necessary. "Indeed, the entire aim of the federal program [affirmative action] is to overcome the long and deeply entrenched system of preferential treatment that has traditionally favored the white male in academia" (Goldstein, 1973, p. 417).

Section IV a

## WOMEN RETURNING TO HIGHER EDUCATION: PROGRAMS IN THE UNITED STATES

One of the consequences of women emerging from the role of homemaker has been their increasing presence on campuses of American universities (Young, 1975). The needs of these non-traditional students are served by various programs which fall most often under the rubric of Continuing Education. An historical overview of selected programs, their growth and diversification are offered in this section of the paper.

The most recent directory of continuing education programs and services for women, published in 1971, lists 450 programs in the United States (Women's Bureau, 1971, p. iii). Gray (1975) estimated six hundred programs are now offering services to adult women. The post-World War II programs, instituted to allow liberal arts graduates to obtain teacher certification and to update skills of professional nurses, were the forerunners of current continuing education programs. Women who re-entered college in the early 1960's had needs and demands which differed from adult learners of the nineteen fifties. Therefore, many colleges and universities included some of the following components in newly designed programs: part-time or limited course load requirements, flexible scheduling for dual-role homemakers,

more liberal policies for credit transfers, day-care facilities, and employment counseling services (Women's Bureau, 1971, p. 8).

The women who required services which differed from the norm were a bellwether - they were later joined by minority groups, young students, and men in career changes (Campbell, 1974). Howard (1975) contended that universities, although aware of women's needs, instituted special services for women only when other groups demanded the same considerations. Returning women are recognized as an economic resource for financially troubled colleges and universities (Roby, 1972; Rice, 1975; & Young, 1975). Although society seems to be recognizing the change in women's roles, "the notion of woman's accommodation and adjustments to her biologically prescribed role is still implicit in most of the assumptions and writings of continuing education" (Rice 1975, p. 246). Increasing numbers of women are remaining in the labor market but continuing education programs fail to recognize this continuity. Returning women are faulted for perceiving continuing education courses as guaranteeing their easy entry into the job market. Younger women must be made to realize that staying in the labor market - regardless of educational levels - on a part-time basis has many more long range advantages than withdrawing to the home for eight or ten years of childrearing. A few "brush-up" courses do not make a twenty-year old credentials valid (Rice, 1975).

The Radcliffe Institute and Everywoman's Village represent women's programs on opposite ends of a continuing education spectrum. The original concept of Everywoman's Village was for it to offer a transitional experience for women who perceived formal university programs as threatening; the school grants no degrees, and course work is not graded. Loeffelbein (1972) described the village as "a halfway house between family and future" (p. 44). Educators and administrators must recognize the value of similar programs which can be a springboard for future students. Not all dissatisfied women can adjust to the rigors of formal college curricula.

Radcliffe Institute represents a unique program for professional and career women. In 1960 the institute requested applications for twenty part-time fellowships from women who had interrupted their careers. During the ensuing decade, the majority of the program's participants were married women in their thirties, with Ph.D's who returned to teaching after completing their post doctoral fellowships. Additionally, women graduate students enrolled to pursue doctoral work; ninety percent of these women fulfilled their Ph.D. requirements (Stent, 1975). Moving toward a wider perspective, the institute is now serving as a research and resource center, focusing on contemporary issues affecting all women. One of the institute's long range goals is to influence and change public policy thereby reducing occupational sex role stereotyping. An additional thrust of the

program is for fellowships to be awarded to women currently in academia or middle management positions whose new research or artistic products will influence their chosen discipline (Graham & Horner, 1976).

Examples of representative college or university programs for women which fall between Everywoman's Village and Radcliffe Institute's continuum location will follow. Programs and services will be compared and contrasted on the following dimensions: (1) impetus (community, faculty, student); (2) conceptual framework; (3) funding sources (initial and present); and (4) demographic data on client populations.

## Section IV b

## SELECTED PROGRAMS FOR RE-ENTRY WOMEN

### The Continuum Center for Women at Oakland University

#### Impetus

The program impetus arose from conferences held in the Detroit area, during the spring of 1963, 1964 and 1965, by the Division of Continuing Education. Women representing groups such as the American Association of University Women, the League of Women Voters and women professionals from business, industry and government attended. The consensus reached by the participants was "that educational services were not enough to help mature women realize their potential" (Seay, 1973). The needs expressed at these conferences

prompted the Division of Continuing Education to institute an experimental program for women and to seek foundation funding.

Funding Source

University administrators sought "risk money" for the proposed Continuum Center For Women from the W. K. Kellogg Foundation of Battle Creek, Michigan. Funding was granted from this source initially for three years, allowing the center to open in 1965. Another four year grant received in 1968 stimulated the program's further development. The National Institute of Mental Health's grant in 1973 provided additional funding for the center. The grant's mandate requires a portion of the money to be used for counselor training and community outreach (History of the Continuum Center, p. 3).

Demographic Data

The client profile was constructed from data gathered on 800 of the 1400 women who utilized the Continuum Center's services between July, 1965 and July, 1968. During the first three years the clients were mature women, three fourths were between thirty and fifty years old, eighty-two percent were married, and they had 2.6 children per family. The women tended to be well educated, twenty-five percent had baccalaurate degrees, thirty-six percent had some college credits, and five percent had completed some graduate

work. Those women who had not completed high school represented a distinct minority (4%). The women were relatively affluent: eighty-six percent came to the Continuum Center for "knowledge and evaluation of themselves" (Seay, 1973, p. 14).

## The Women's Continuing Education Program of The University of Minnesota (Minnesota Plan)

### Impetus

The program's concepts were formulated by Dr. Virginia L. Senders, a lecturer in the Psychology Department, and Mrs. Elizabeth Cless, Assistant to the Dean of the General Extension Division. Their intention was neither to found a new college nor to institute new curricula but to use existing resources and develop a feasible plan within the university's structure. When funding was granted, the Minnesota Plan comprised two components; Dr. Senders directed counseling and research while an experimental teaching component was directed by Mrs. Cless.

### Funding

In 1960 the program received a $110,000 three-year grant from the Carnegie Corporation. A supplementary grant of $72,000 was made after the first three developmental years. Although the university's administrative officers and a faculty committee aided the project, its initiation and implementation were not possible without foundation funding. When the Carnegie grant was terminated in 1965,

the women's program was integrated into the university budget.

Demographic Data

Students participating in the program during the first five years numbered 2,602 and lived in the Minneapolis St. Paul area. They represented the general population of returning women in the early sixties, married, middle class, thirty to forty years old (mean age 37.2). The returning students had attended college at a younger age (82%). They were described as serious students, with sixty-four percent planning to enter degree programs (Schletzer et al 1967, pp. 8-13). A more recent survey of students registered through Continuing Education indicated changes in the student population. They traveled from more distant points, their ages ranged from 18 to 81, and they reflected a diversity of socio-economic levels, races, and marital status. The returning students' educational levels ranged from no college work to advanced degrees. Continuing Education courses, now numbering 200, allow students to enter the university as full-time students or facilitate the completion of degree requirements (Continuing Education for Women, 1960-1975).

Everywoman's Center, University of Massachusetts

Impetus

Everywoman's Center grew from the original proposal to

the Five College Co-ordinator (Smith, Mt. Holyoke, Amherst, Hampshire and The University of Massachusetts) submitted by two women activists representing the Valley Women's Center. The March, 1970 proposal was rejected necessitating new contacts with the Director of Continuing Education at the University of Massachusetts. Working in a non-hierarchical structure or consensus model, the founding women were able to influence the university while maintaining a quasi-autonomous position. Some of the more basic feminist tenets constitute the underlying philosophy of the center.

> Again, our main goal was to be able to refer women to counselors and therapists who could help, not frustrate, their efforts to change their lives. We believe all counseling is political - and that feminist counseling is based on a theory of mental health quite different from the traditional male/female double standard definitions of mental health (Everywoman's Center, 1975, pp. 44 & 45).

Funding

Funding was received in 1972 from the general budget of Continuing Education and The Provost's Office. Staffing appears to have been a problem; many volunteers were used at the program's inception but as their numbers increased the efficiency of the operation decreased. The programs, workshops, and courses supported by the center received specific university budget allocations. Requests for increased funding to cover hired staff were not granted for fiscal year 1975. Recent information indicated that Everywoman's Center staff and university administrators cooperated in

planning programs and budgets. The results are found in expanded programs which include university credit for Continuing Education courses.

Demographic Data

Available data were collected in the spring, 1974, from women who enrolled in workshops sponsored by Everywoman's Center. A majority of the women were not students (56%), nearly one third were full-time students (30%), and Continuing Education students comprised 14% of the population. Educational levels of participants were the following: (1) some college 49%; (2) BA/BS, 28%; (3) post bacaulerrate degree, 13%; and (4) no college, 10%. The workshops' participants were younger than the women who were clients or students in Oakland's and Minnesota's programs. Forty-one percent of the women were between 21 and 25 years of age, 22% were age 31 to 40, 17% were between age 26 and 30, women 16 to 20 years old represented over 13% of the population while 5% of the total number enrolled was over forty. Workshops were attended by approximately 350-400 women each semester; "for many it is their first experience in an all-women, supportive, non-hierarchical learning and sharing environment" (Staff, Everywoman's Center, 1975, p. 53).

The Greater Miami Center for the Continuing Education of Women.
Miami - Dade Community College.

Impetus

In the early years of the sixties, a group of women

community leaders in Greater Miami realized there were no adequate referral or information services available to women anticipating entering or re-entering college. The Council for the Continuing Education of Women (CCEW) was founded as the first consortium which offered a community-wide program enabling women to pursue their education. The education services available from CCEW ranged from a comprehensive adult education system of the Dade County Public Schools, through the public junior college and the upper division state university, to the private four year colleges and one university with graduate and undergraduate schools. These educational institutions were included in a council which also has official representatives of participating colleges and schools as well as twenty leaders representing the business, professional and volunteer communities (Kaynor, 1972).

Funding

Original funding was obtained in August, 1966, from a community-contributing three-year grant under Title I of the Higher Education Act of 1965. The University of Miami was the initial grant recipient and the central office for the pilot project was a conveniently located off-campus facility. After three years, the program became a component of the Miami -Dade Community College. In 1970, the CCEW center was part of the Continuing Education service of a new Downtown Campus of the same institution. The volunteer community,

which has been a vital part of CCEW since its inception, continues to be the structural support for the center's effectiveness in serving the Greater Miami Area (The CCEW Story, 1975).

Demographic Data

Clients served by the CCEW center numbered 916 for the period May, 1974, through May, 1975. Services to clients included the following: interviews, letters, phone contacts and referral to Continuing Education and other departments of the college. Nearly two-thirds of the clients expressed a need for career counseling which frequently involved their registering for various academic programs. A large number of clients were college graduates exploring opportunities in new fields. CCEW courses, workshops and seminars attracted 2,492 students and/or participants (CCEW Annual Report, 1975, p. 9).

The programs reviewed represent a cross section of the services which exist in communities and colleges throughout the United States. They were included in this paper for their diversity of funding sources, impetuses and philosophies.

## Section V

## A COMMUNITY-BASED RESOURCE CENTER FOR WOMEN: RATIONALE FOR COMPONENTS

Introduction

The remaining sections of this paper will include a rationale and process for instituting community-based

resource centers for women. The need for such centers has been documented by the increasing numbers of women in the labor force, the decline of the "feminine mystique", the increased worklife of women, and the continued practice of sexist counseling in junior and senior high schools. Writing from the perspective of a community psychologist, I am suggesing that the most feasible proposal for any community resource center must include mechanisms which link existing services, agencies, and educational institutions into a network which includes business, industry and the volunteer community. Schlossberg's (1976) work underscored the need of many adults for community-based guidance centers. Her contention is that adults experience role transformations in four basic areas: vocation, parenthood, intimacy and community. The anxiety which accompanies any self-evaluation is not caused by the search for change but rather the lack of readily available information and guidance. Although there are increasing numbers of adults returning to higher education (Young, 1975), many others are found outside the educational mainstream. How many more adults would return to education as a result of their self-evaluation if they could be linked with existing educational resources through a community-based guidance and referral center?

> The problems of isolation from the educational system and its services and dysfunctions within the present system might be solved if guidance centers were independent of any control by educational institutions although free to draw upon their resources. The guidance centers would be open to any and all clients in the community...the community-based

> guidance counselors would be in a position to push particular institutions in ways...that would be impossible if the institutions were their employers (Schlossberg, 1976, p. 117).

The services suggested by Schlossberg are needed particularly by women who seek additional educational or career re-entry guidance. The changing role of women has been documented earlier in this paper; however, neither services nor social endorsement of these roles has emerged at a comparable rate. Looking at women in particular, there appears to be a need for resource centers to be established in communities throughout the United States. The centers' services should include educational, vocational and employment counseling, volunteer job referrals, peer counseling, and referrals to existing human service agencies. The purpose of the proposed centers would not be to duplicate existing programs but to establish a network among related but autonomous community agencies, employment bureaus, educational institutions, and continuing education programs.

Planners of guidance centers in geographic areas which include colleges and universities must recognize the resources of these institutions. Colleges and universities are, not only providers of education but "citizens" of any given community. They affect their surroundings in terms of the property they occupy, the jobs they supply, the support their students give to community businesses and by their possibilities for physical expansion. "[C]olleges and

universities must accept their role as citizens in the community regardless of their size or history; communities must learn to deal with their leading citizens" (McInnes 1974, p. 238). Schlossberg has suggested that academe's control be avoided in a community-based guidance center. It is clear that the university or community college could serve as a vital linking component making contributions from a wide spectrum of educational resources. Colleges are being challenged to stop viewing older adult students as "retreads in a kind of salvage operation"; the campus has been labeled as a "ghetto for the young" (Boyer, 1974, p. 6). It is higher education's charge to meet the needs of a changing society whose members are stepping in and out of education and careers rather than pursuing degrees in traditonal four year programs. The world of work and the world of academe must intersect (Boyer, 1974). Community-based guidance centers could facilitate this change through programs which touch both business and educational institutions.

Recommendations from the Carnegie Commission on Higher Education found in The Campus and The City are applicable to much of what Boyer (1974), McInnes (1974), and Schlossberg (1976) have proposed. "Generally we see a need for more intermediary individuals and institutions between the campus and the city" (Carnegie Commission, 1972, p. 7). The intermediary individuals suggested above could serve as linking persons and/or advocates for target populations whose educational and vocational guidance needs are not

being met by traditional programs. A large proportion of this population in any community is the re-entry woman, the woman whose ascribed role precludes self-fulfillment, the woman who must assume the full responsibility of heading a household, or the woman who seeks career advancement through education. She represents much of this unserved population.

The proposed resource centers for women could serve a wide range of needs. Three vital services of all centers will include volunteer opportunities, educational advising, and guidance for careers or job market re-entry. Program development will be influenced by the prevailing norms and socio-economic milieu of any given geographic area in which a center is located. But the centers must have a vital common thread; they can offer alternatives to women who are experiencing very real changes in their feminine roles. The rationale for the volunteer, employment, education, and service components of the center follow.

Volunteer Component

> The most typical American Volunteer in 1974 was a married, white woman between the ages of 25 and 44 who held a college degree and was in the upper income bracket (ACTION, 1974, p. 1).

ACTION, the federal service agency which is responsible for the administration of both foreign and domestic volunteer programs, commissioned the Bureau of Census to conduct a survey in 1974 on the volunteer activities of Americans. The survey indicated that one in four people over thirteen years of age did some form of volunteer work. A positive

correlation existed between incomes and volunteering i.e., people with higher incomes were more likely to comprise the volunteer population. Thirty-seven percent of the Americans who earned $20,000 or more volunteered in 1974 while only 22 percent volunteered whose incomes were between $7,500 and $10,000 (ACTION, 1974). The data lend support to the hypothesis that volunteering requires money as well as leisure time. The woman who has time to volunteer must also have the means to pay parking, luncheon and child care fees. Therefore, resource centers' staff can anticipate that women seeking volunteer opportunities probably will come from the more affluent segments of the community.

Feminists have challenged the concept of volunteering as unpaid labor. Are women being exploited or is volunteering a civic duty? Varying positions, (Loeser, 1974; Koontz, 1970; Sanborn & Bird, 1975; & Straus, 1975) are discussed below.

Looking to the future, Loeser (1974) predicted that the social changes which will accompany shorter work weeks will free many more people to volunteer in worth-while causes. Rather than seeing voluntarism as an exploitation of women, she has observed its serving as a springboard to the labor force. Voluntarism has in many instances been raised to the professional level (Loeser, 1974). "Many of the tasks performed by volunteers are identical to positions found in the salaried work world, ranging from clerical work to fund-raising and technical work in public health programs"

(Sanborn & Bird, 1975 p. 88). Women who volunteer in the community experience self-fulfillment when their creative talents are so directed. Community problems can be addressed by the cooperation of the voluntary, public and private sectors of our society (Koontz, 1970). Volunteer work can have two distinct effects if one subscribes to the authors' views listed above: the woman receives confirmation of her worth outside her home environment and society benefits from her talents and willingness to give.

The National Organization of Women's (NOW) Task Force on Volunteerism cautions women to avoid volunteering for service organizations while sanctioning their involvement in "political" or "change-oriented" activities. NOW'S position on service-oriented agencies is clarified in the following statement:

> That such volunteering is an extension of unpaid housework and women's traditional roles in the home (such as helper, buffer and supporter) which have been extended to encompass the community.
>
> That such volunteering reinforces a woman's low self image by offering work which because it is unpaid, confers little status.
>
> That volunteerism has been society's solution for those, including but not limited to women, for which there is little real employment choice. (McCormick, 1973; cited in Strauss, 1975 p. 73)

Strauss refuted NOW's position in the following statement:

> It is indeed essential that women become economically independent. But if we limit our sights to that goal lone, if we make economic independence our sole objective, when and if we do achieve it, the cost of that journey will be psychic bankruptcy (Strauss 1975, p. 87).

Resource centers' staff members, who serve in counseling and referral capacities, must be cognizant of these conflicting messages to which contemporary women are exposed. The volunteer component of the resource network is vital since all women seeking change will not choose to reenter the job market or educational institutions.

Education

The post-World War II "baby boom cohort" (born between 1947 and 1961) has influenced the educational system since the 1950's. Educational institutions strained to meet increasing demands; the 1960's saw the colleges and universities acting and reacting to these students. The last-born of the cohort will enter the labor force in 1979. They will be well-educated and it is predicted that the "baby boom cohort" will continue to seek a wide range of educational opportunities (Johnston, 1976). Evidence of this trend was found in the one million people of thirty-five years of age or older who were attending college in 1975 (Young, 1975). "It is plausible to argue that increasing numbers of individuals in the maturing baby-boom cohort group will turn to adult education in an effort to improve or update their skills or widen their career options when confronted by the serious competition which is anticipated" (Johnston, 1976, p. 163).

A continuation of the increased level of educational attainment in the labor force has been predicted for 1985

when one out of every five workers will have attended college for four years or more. A shift in occupational composition is also predicted with white collar workers comprising a projected 52.9 percent of the work force. This figure represents a marked increase from 43.1 percent white collar portion of the labor force in 1960 (National Center for Educational Statistics, 1976 p. 118). These changes could affect women to a greater extent than men since in 1975 they were the majority of white collar workers (Women's Bureau, 1976). Current trends and predictions clearly indicate that colleges will be called upon to expand further their adult education programs.

Loring (1974) perceives university extension and continuing education programs as providing knowledge and revitalizing the adult learners self-concept. The dearth of financial aid for part-time students essentially denies educational opportunities to people who are not in the higher economic strata of society.

> Few states subsidize education for adults; few banks provide loans for part-time students, and the values of our society are just beginning to commend the expenditure of family income on continuing the education of women. Small wonder, then, that women extension students, on the whole, are both mature and middle class. Yet it is they who have been seeking to change the traditional images of themselves as dull, uninteresting, plastic, not-quite-bright persons (Loring, 1974 p. 201).

Women who re-enter the labor market or return to college are recognized by Barbier (1971) as placing very special demands on counselors. The transitional period from home to the

"real world" is fraught with feelings of inadequacy. Social norms have kept these women down traditionally, so counselors must aid clients in finding new outlets for their energy and intellect. Educational counseling can include advice for part-time or full-time study. It can also direct professionals to refresher courses which enhance their re-entry potential in a highly competitive job market. Barbier recognizes the obstacles, (such as less pay for equal work) which exist in employment practices and education. She suggested that colleges and universities must adjust programs to the very different needs of mature women.

When working with young female clients, Barbier (1971) contended counselors must point out the cyclic nature of the woman's life. If the client does not wish to prepare for a life-long vocation or career she must be made aware of the twenty to twenty-five year period which she could spend as the supervisor of an "empty nest". Loeffler (1975) lent support to Barbier's premise when she advised counselors to assume a life-style orientation in their counseling perspective. Educational and career counseling must expose women to non-traditional career alternatives. Career advice should not be tailored to fit the wife/mother role but rather to the clients' attaining self-supporting vocations. In fact, women are combining career and family; four out of ten married women 25 to 34 years of age were workers in March 1975 (Women's Bureau, 1976, p. 10).

Shifts in social attitudes have not kept pace with changes in women's lives. Loeffler asserted that this change must occur if women are to emerge from their feelings of guilt when they choose a dual role. Additionally, society must no longer define the working woman as selfish or greedy since this definition ignores the fact that in March, 1975, among all American families, approximately one out of eight was headed by a woman (Loeffler, 1975; Women's Bureau 1976).

The structure of universities and colleges must be changed in order that re-entry women can be served better. To facilitate these changes, resource center counselors must be willing to advocate for this growing student population. One way to initiate change is to increase the sensitivity of administrators and faculty to the special needs of older women students (Howard, 1975).

Additionally, Loeffler (1975) suggested a futuristic orientation for counselors since re-entry women may seek fulfillment in non-traditional careers. Howard's (1975) recommendations for data collection are consonant with community psychology's emphasis on action research. Data collected on this student population will insure an on-going evaluation of services and a systematic development of future programs.

Employment Component

Women who re-enter educational programs or the work force represent a new clientele for educational/career

counselors. Counselors must be prepared to support the women who venture into male strongholds (Fitzgerald, 1973). A recent study at the University of Maryland indicated that women who showed high family involvement or orientation were as committed to their jobs as women described as having low family orientation (Gannon & Hendrickson, 1973). The implications of this study are that the perception of career versus family role as being dichotomous is not valid. Therefore, counselors must not only support re-entry women but must recognize that re-entry women are in serious pursuit of careers. They are not merely looking for activities to fill their leisure hours. Results of a recent study of working women concluded that "the level of vocational interest in women, irrespective of their married/single status, would be raised if home-career conflict were reduced" (Farmer & Bohn, 1970 p. 228). Haener (1972) underscored the importance of counseling men to the fact that there is no disgrace nor short-coming on their part if their wife works. Counseling of this type could reduce further the home-career conflict.

An integral part of any employment counseling program should include data on sex discrimination in the market place. Resource center counselors must identify prevailing discriminatory employment practices, apprise clients of their legal rights, and act to change current conditions. Legislation or policies which allow women equal access to jobs do not preclude discriminatory employment practices.

Career advancement and movement on the job ladder should be accompanied by increased earnings. To determine if equity for women is being achieved, employemnt counselors must focus on these aspects of employment as well as initial hiring practices (Brown, 1976).

Women who want part-time employment need to be aware of the special variables which may contribute to their work-related stress. An "office temporary" is analogous to an urban migrant worker; there is no sense of group identity. This lack of identity is accompanied frequently by tension in offices to which the temporary is assigned. Workers are hired for their general skills but are expected to have specialized abilities. Cadrain (1975) presents the "temporary" as a woman who is exploited by the referral agency and the office where she works. An equally convincing argument can be made for temporary jobs being valuable stepping stones for the woman re-entering the labor market. The initial experience can serve to increase her self-confidence diminished by the years she has spent in the home environment.

"Unconsciously, managers often make personnel decisions and evaluations using traditional male/female concepts" (Rosen & Gerdee, 1974, p. 45). In a survey of 1500 Harvard Business Review subscribers it was found that even managers with the best intentions will resort to traditional definitions of role behavior both in the home and on the job. Survey results indicated while males were expected to put

the job before the family, females were expected to do the reverse. A finding which has potentially far-reaching effects involved censure of personal conduct, i.e., when personal conduct jeopardized an employee's job, the male was more likely to be retained than the female. Advancement on the career ladder was also biased in the male's favor. Rosen and Jerdee (1974) contended that if the results of this survey were extrapolated to the entire population of management personnel in the country, even a "small bias against women can affect thousands of career women" (p. 58).

Career counselors should not assume that the extension of women's social and political rights has been accompanied by a similar extension of the boundaries in male dominated professions. Women are not found in the channels of the protege' system, which governs career ladder ascendance. They are excluded from social interaction which is defined by sex-role expectations and the sex-typed career labels which serve to form stronger links between occupational and sex roles. These phenomena are not confined solely to women since they can occur as a function of race or age. But professions have implicit and explicit norms - if one neither meets these stnadards nor understands them - it is difficult to be part of the group. "For all occupations in all societies, as one approaches the top, the proportion of men increases and the proportion of women decreases" (Epstein, 1970, p. 968).

Women appear to be more comfortable, according to Epstein, in careers where they are an exception to exclusionary hiring practices; women also tend to advance more readily in government service where competitive examinations are required. Becoming a specialist in a particular area often allows women to be rewarded more readily. Being aware of research like Epstein's can facilitate the employment counselor's effectiveness.

"Consideration of women's career objectives in isolation from other social choices might cause us to overlook some disconcerting incompatibilities" (Gold, 1973, p. 656). The author contended it is naive to assume that the economy can provide career opportunities which are commensurate with the skills and qualifications of educated women. Encouraging women's career aspirations must be tempered with the realism of current and future job prospects. Typically female professions of teaching, nursing, and social work will not have sufficient openings to absorb the women who are and will be preparing for them (Gold, 1973).

The condition of the economy will dictate job opportunities for women. Recent downward trends in the economy (1974 and early 1975) caused unemployment rates to rise for both male and female workers as business kept hiring to a minimum while laying off other employees. The current upward trend traced by the Department of Labor should improve the employment outlook for women. When this trend is coupled with anti-discrimination legislation, continued

opportunities in non-traditional fields could permit women to advance to higher skilled jobs. "Women who are informed about opportunities before making course selections will be able to capitalize on these opportunities in fields where skilled workers will be in demand" (Women's Bureau, p. 10). The employment counselors of the resource centers will need to be well informed regarding the local job market, apprenticeship programs, and business management opportunities. In addition, they must have knowledge of national economic and employment trends. A well informed counselor can prevent women from preparing for deadend or obsolete careers. A final statement summarizes future trends which will influence guidance and referral given to the re-entry woman.

> In addition to new job opportunities in expanding occupations, advances in the educational attainment of women in particular fields, greater longevity of women, and the trend toward smaller families all point to continuing increases in the labor force participation of women (Women's Bureau, 1976, p. 10).

## Section VI

## A COMMUNITY-BASED RESOURCE CENTER FOR WOMEN: PROCESS FOR DEVELOPING A NETWORK

Society to date has neither provided for nor recognized the changing role of women in America. If women are to maximize their potential, communities and educational institutions must cooperate to provide services for the women who have been the subject of this paper. The literature review substantiated the need for community-based guidance and referral networks. However, creating a new agency by

linking existing human services, educational programs, and employment bureaus is not an easy task.

> The decision to create a new and independent setting usually reflects two considerations: the opinion that the existing settings are inadequate for one or another reason, and, independent of this, the awareness that the conflicts that emerged in the process of arriving at a decision were of such strength and quality as to make a new and independent setting the desirable possibility. ...the new setting has a varigated type of heritage...the individuals and settings continue to be operative. ...this heritage literally becomes part of the new setting (Sarason, 1972, pp. 31-32).

Resource center planners must be aware of the history of innovative community projects which attempted to provide a service to an unserved population. Additionally, since autonomy, self-perpetuation, and competition for limited financial resources are inherent in the goals of most agencies, innovators must be prepared for conflict when introducing the network concept. A history of interagency conflict does not have to be viewed negatively; rather, it could be a potential force for generating support for new services or agencies (Sarason, 1972).

A community-based resource center for women could be initiated by volunteers, professionals from the community, or community outreach persons from local educational institutions. The outstanding characteristic of the planner should be what Sarason (1976) has described as the "good-broker". Brokering is a major component of any new program, especially when it will have an impact on existing agencies. Resource center planners must recognize that although

representatives of community agencies agree on the value of a network, this condition is not sufficient for creating a "new setting" (Sarason, 1972). "Beyond values the creation of settings involves ... substantive knowledge, a historical stance, a realistic time perspective, vehicles of criticism, and the necessity for and the evils of leadership" (Sarason, 1972, p. 6). Project planners must recognize networks which already exist in communities. Sarason (1976) pointed out that we interact with people on an individual basis, often failing to recognize them as part of many networks. The author's hypothesis is "if we were to begin to view the community in terms of networks we would begin to get a better picture of this interrelatedness" (Sarason, 1976, p. 323). Knowing this, how does one approach the community for support. Planners must confront these questions:

> What individuals or groups will be directly affected by the proposed program? What issues of territoriality will it raise for which agencies, professions, and other interest groups? Who can be counted on to put obstacles in the way of the proposed program? Who has the power, actual or potential to prematurely terminate the program? (Sarason, 1976, p. 325)

The last section of this paper will address these questions and others which are germane to the process of conceptualizing, creating, and establishing a resource center for women which will utilize existing community networks. Wherever "new settings" are created, "people would be brought together in what were for them new relationships over a sustained period of time to achieve certain objectives" (Sarason, 1972, p. 2). The process

outlined below for establishing resource centers for women is designed for use in communities throughout the United States.

> The complexity of a community will in large part determine the fate of efforts to change that community in any respect. The fact that individuals or groups in a community desire to effect a change is saying something about the community. What happens to the effort will in large measure be determined by the degree to which it is based on a realistic conception of the complexity and distinctiveness of that community (Sarason, 1974, p. 132).

Program designers must recognize the unique characteristics of their projected client population, their community, and their funding resources. The process outlined below must be viewed as a flexible guide rather than as a rigid formula; it is designed for use by volunteers, or community outreach staff of colleges or universities.

I. Define Geographic Areas to be Served

Sarason (1974) defined a community as "...more than a political or geographical area. It contains a variety of institutions which may be formally or informally related to each other - or not related at all" (p. 131). Defining the geographic area which a resource center could serve includes the following considerations: (1) What educational institutions are located within reasonable proximity of the projected center? (2) Are there local business establishments, offices, insurance companies, etc., to which women could be referred? (3) Are human service agencies already linked through inter-county programs? (4) What organizations or institutions rely on volunteer time to extend limited

resources? (5) Does a public transportation system schedule wide-area services? (6) Do formal or informal channels of cooperation exist among boroughs, townships and cities? Early plans must include a definition of the geographic area which the center could serve. The boundaries should not be fixed; therefore, as the program expands, a larger area could be served. For example, some resource centers could be located within a city of 80,000 to 150,000 residents, while others would serve a suburban population living in small towns which are surrounded by suburban split level enclaves. Sarason's (1974) definition of community is applicable to both of the above situations.

II. Identify Target Population

The identification of a potential client population can be implemented in a number of ways. The method selected is determined primarily by available financial resources. If a limited amount of funding is available, e.g., a local private resource, data gathering is accomplished more easily. A mass mailing of questionnaires can be sent to residents of the previously defined geographic area. County tax assessment lists are excellent resources for names and addresses. If local funding is not available, program planners can extrapolate a client population from Characteristics of the Population, United States Department of Commerce, Social and Economic Statistics Administration, Bureau of Census. This compilation of statistics is available from

the federal government, state libraries, or in some areas, university libraries. An additional resource to be utilized is the volunteer community. The League of Women Voters or the American Association of Univeristy Women may agree to adopt projects to assess the needs of potential clients. Questionnaires printed in local newspapers, organizations' newsletters, or distributed among members of women's groups can serve to identify changes in the roles of women. The data collected will not represent a random sample but can give planners valuable information on the potential client population. The questionnaire should be designed to gather data which are pertinent for the resource center's services. The following items should be included: (1) age, (2) gross income of respondent or household, (3) marital status, (4) educational attainment, (5) employment history (including jobs held, reason for leaving, unsuccessful attempts to obtain employment), (6) re-entry interests or plans, (such as returning to secondary or post-secondary schools, re-entering the labor market, enrolling in training programs, or volunteering). Questionnaires, whether mailed or printed in local newspapers, must guarantee anonymity to respondents. Results of the questionnaires will allow planners a realistic perspective when they proceed to the next planning stage.

III. Assess Resources of Geographic Area

In order to assess community resources, planners should

design questionnaires for distribution to agencies. A cover letter which briefly describes the network concept, the commitment to non-duplication of existing services, and a promise for a meeting in the near future, can be sent with the questionnaire. The collection of data on existing agencies can be facilitated in the following manner. The Chamber of Commerce which serves cities, towns, and given geographic areas, prints lists of local service organizations, businesses and civic groups. Directories available from United Way Agencies are also an excellent resource. Both of these directories could serve as a base from which planners can collect more information. Additional information must be compiled on the following: (1) human service agencies, (2) continuing education programs in post-secondary institutions, (3) adult programs in high schools and vocational-technical schools, (4) job training opportunities, (5) industrial management training programs, and (6) adult student enrollment in high schools and colleges in the given geographic area. Collecting information of this kind may require a small amount of funding. If the impetus for the project arises in the volunteer community, the information is public, therefore, volunteer time can eliminate the need for funding at this stage of development.

IV. Collate Data

Planners should move to an early assessment of collected information. Questionnaire results and a compilation

of community resources/services will lead to an accurate profile of: (1) prospective clients, (2) potential agencies for a network, (3) available educational, vocational and job training programs, and (4) community professionals available for client referrals such as, clinical psychologists, attorneys, and medical practitioners.

V. Contact Key Community Representatives

During the time that information was being gathered, written communication with community representatives was facilitated by the questionnaires. Planners will have had their fingers on the community pulse enabling them to anticipate support and/or resistance for the proposed resource center's guidance and referral network. Areas where project planners can expect difficulty are from agencies which perceive the new center as supplanting their programs. It is imperative that community representatives from the volunteer, business and educational sectors are apprised of the project as soon as data have been gathered and analyzed. Early discussion with key representatives should include formative planning for a board of directors.

Resistance to the proposed resource center will be less if the following practices and strategies are adopted: (1) representatives of the community (defined here as the business, educational, human service and volunteer sectors) perceive the new project to be their own; (2) support is given to the project by administrators or top level manage-

ment persons; (3) philosophical agreement exists on the value of the center, on its potential benefits to existing agencies, and on participants in the network maintaining their autonomy; (4) community representatives are involved in needs assessment; (5) philosophical and procedural differences are aired; (6) a mechanism for communication is created ensuring feedback, clarification, and understanding of the project's progress (Watson, 1966). Resistance to any new project must be anticipated by the planners. This is especially true for a project such as the resource center. Presentation of questionnaire results must be done in a non-threatening manner; administrators may be reluctant to admit that an unserved client population exists. Planners should be careful to present the network concept so that it will be perceived as augmenting rather than duplicating their current services.

IV. Funding

After the geographic area has been defined, the demographic data collected, existing volunteer, human services, business, and educational programs surveyed, the planners and key community representatives will determine which funding sources seem most feasible. Planners should be informed regarding funding sources. Additionally, on-going programs for women in the United States must be researched by the planners to be sure that their concepts are realistic. Their knowledge, coupled with that of grant-funded agency administrators, will afford a more cohesive effort toward

applying for money. A consensus reached by this group must allow the planners to investigate resources at many levels. These would include, (1) local private funds, (2) state funds, (3) federal programs specifically designed for women, (4) private foundations, and (5) university or college Continuing Education Departments. The final institutions, universities, might be amenable to network participation since re-entry women represent a growing adult student population with which post-secondary institutions can increase their enrollment.

When the group decides which funding source to pursue, all members' inputs must be solicited to prevent resistance from those who feel threatened by the network concept. To write a grant proposal with more than two or three persons can be counterproductive, but a summary of ideas facilitates conceptualizing and writing. Guidelines from funding sources tend to have severe time contraints, often allowing planners only two weeks to draft any one proposal. Therefore, the preliminary discussions are invaluable to the planners. Watson (1973) ascertained that resistance will be less if community participants perceive the project as their own. Astute planners must recognize this as a mandate.

VII. Educational Institutions

The planners of a resource center for an area which includes a college or university must recognize the potential contribution of these institutions. Early contacts

with administrators and faculty should be made by the planners. Universities can and usually are willing to offer services for the re-entry woman. When this is not true, planners will assume advocary roles for both their network concept and their future clients. Although the structure of the university may not be affected in the developmental phase of the resource center, support from key faculty could help the project.

VIII. Funding Received: Pilot Program and Evaluation

The amount of funding received will dictate which components can be included at the center's inception. Frequently a pilot program will be instituted for the first year. Suchman (1976) has described the pilot program as a period of trial and error in which organization structures and procedures can be tested in a flexible framework. He posited that the emphasis must be on variation, i.e., not only the way the program is structured, but how the staff delivers services, the appropriateness of the project's physical location, and whom is the program reaching. "Flexibility, innovation, re-direction, reorganization, are all desirable, and attempts to structure or "freeze" a program at this stage are premature" (Suchman, 1976, p. 60). The author suggested evaluating the pilot program in a simple manner with great emphasis on feedback, particularly when program changes are made. If program planners are to learn from the pilot program, it must be evaluated.

When planners choose not to have a pilot program, evaluation becomes an even more critical issue. Scriven's (1976) concept of formative and summative evaluation is applicable in this case. Formative evaluation is built into a program at its earliest phase and serves to check closely the delivery of services to clients. Summative evaluation reviews a program at a specified time and judges the value of its services. It follows that the resource network must have reliable data collection as one of its operational procedures.

Formative evaluation can be accomplished through various techniques. The network agencies to which the client is referred must keep records on the services rendered to clients whom they have seen from the resource center. The quality of these services also must be known to the resource center's staff. If privacy is an issue at this stage, the resource center may get feedback only on numbers of referrals who have been employed or accepted in educational institutions, training programs or volunteer positions. Formative evaluation can be a component of the initial interview; clients can relate the sources from which they learned of the resource center's services. Since part of the program will be community outreach and recruitment, the effectiveness of media coverage and public speaking engagements can be ascertained in client interviews. Records of attendance at university and college sponsored seminars, educational or career workshops, are important

measures of the programs' impact on the community.

The summative evaluation, which is equally important, can be accomplished by adhering to a schedule of periodic mailing of questionnaires to clients who have used the center's services. Items on quality of service should appear in these questionnaires. A compilation of all evaluation forms distributed at center-sponsored events would supply data for a yearly comprehensive review of program goals. Educational components of the network which develop new curricula for re-entry women must monitor enrollment and interest in new courses. The cost factor to colleges is an important variable in this instance. A final method of evaluation is comparison; that is, what are comparable women's centers doing to reach their respective populations, what are their goals and criteria for success, and how are they being measured? Comparison is an essential component of any program evaluation.

IX. Geographic Location of Center

Receipt of funding will allow planners to locate an office in a pre-determined area. The center must be located so that it is accessable to the greatest number of clients, so availability of public transportation is vital. Although university representation and cooperation can be imperative for the success of resource centers, the central office should be located off-campus. The services of the center are designed for employment, volunteer work, and educational

guidance. Women who are considering many alternatives to their current lifestyle can be intimidated by the idea of taking their first step on to a college campus.

X. Staff and Board of Directors

Funding and fee-for-services will determine the size and professional level of the staff. A minimum staff could include: an administrator, a community outreach professional, and a secretary. A consulting staff must include: a clinical psychologist and university faculty. Professional ethics necessitate the inclusion of a licensed clinical psychologist on the consulting staff. Volunteers can be used to supplement staff activities, however, careful screening of volunteers must preceed their being accepted.

The community representatives, working with the planners will have formed a board of directors prior to funding being received. As the program expands its services, board members' tasks can be categorized by committee assignments. The staff should develop a sensitivity to the importance of having a broad base of community support for the project. From the standpoint of expediency, the center will require local funds when federal, state or foundation grants of one to three years duration are no longer renewable.

XI. Programs and Services

The resource center's programs should be loosely structured -planners must not assume that all client needs will be predictable on the basis of data collected in the

project's early stages. Client demands and populations tend to change over time. Services offered will be largely referral, so a cohesive network of services for women will be strengthened if cooperating agencies adhere to reciprocal referral practices. Not only will the clients be better served, but scarce resources will be extended by avoiding duplication of services.

In sum, the kind of programs and services included in the resource network will be determined largely by the amount of funding received, the cooperative climate of the community, and the socio-economic/psychosocial status of the client population.

Further writing on the process of instituting a women's resource center network could border on pure speculation. Much of what was written above is based on research and experience. The process, as stated earlier, must be viewed as a flexible guide rather than as a rigid formula. Sarason (1972) discussed the dearth of writings on creating new settings; he places the blame on two groups: the "conceptualizers" and the "creators".

> Those who create settings are usually people of action for whom the process is a personal or a political, or a social affair far more than it is a conception one. That is to say, they do not engage themselves in the process except in a literally wholehearted way, leaving little or no dispassionate part of themselves the task of critical review or conceptualization. ...Those who are at home in the world of ideas and social theory have never experienced the creation of a setting (Sarason 1972, p. 182, 183).

This paper is an attempt to build a small bridge linking conceptualizing to creating, the ultimate goal being that society will recognize and attend to the needs, demands and desires of contemporary women.

Summary

Evidence of the changing role of women is seen in their increased presence in the labor force. The Women's Bureau projected that increased career opportunities for women in non-traditional fields will be available in the future. Counselors in secondary and post secondary schools are urged by leaders in the guidance field to be attuned to social change. Contingency counseling should not be given. A career/marriage dichotomy is no longer valid for women in the 1970's.

Many women have moved to solve "the problem that has no name". Others have realized there is much more to life than being the children's mother. One of the steps toward self-fulfillment for many women includes walking on to a college campus and enrolling for courses. The step is not easy nor are there programs in sufficient numbers to serve this growing subpopulation of students.

It is now imperative that communities and educational institutions cooperate to serve women seeking avenues for change. The proposal for developing resource centers for women throughout the United States is neither pragmatic nor feasible if human service agencies, businesses and colleges

refuse to combine their resources. If this does not take place, society will continue to waste a valuable resource, women.

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